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ABSTRACT

Improvement in the quality of education is a concern shared by all the Member States of the European Community. The in-service training of teachers is a critical factor in the pursuit of this objective. Increasingly rapid changes in society (economic, technological, social, and cultural) mean that teachers are constantly faced with new syllabuses and the need for new instructional methodologies. However, there is little new blood entering the profession and there are few vacancies for new recruits because of the falling birthrate. Despite the particular characteristics of each country's educational system, there are many similarities in the objectives set for education by Member States and in the difficulties encountered when attempting to implement these objectives. Recommendations are made concerning the organization of in-service training, programs for in-service training, the teacher trainers, types of in-service activity, and links between initial and in-service training. (BZ)

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The in-service training of teachers

in the twelve Member States of the European Community

ED284784

V. Blackburn – C. Moisan

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Study of the
Commission of the European
Communities

Produced with the
of the European Unit of
the Education Information
the European Community

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PRESSES INTERUNIVERSITAIRES
EUROPÉENNES

THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS
IN THE TWELVE MEMBER STATES
OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

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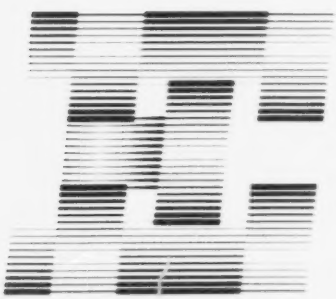
STUDY CARRIED OUT ON BEHALF OF THE COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES, UNDER THE AUSPICES OF LE LABORATOIRE DE PEDAGOGIE EXPERIMENTALE DE L'UNIVERSITE DE LIEGE, BY

Miss V. BLACKBURN and
Mlle C. MOISAN



Eurydice

THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN THE TWELVE MEMBER STATES OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

6

Eurydice
The Education Information Network in the European Community

Educational cooperation

The educational systems in Community countries vary considerably and this variety, which is the result of historic and cultural factors, itself constitutes a great wealth which should be preserved.
On the other hand it is in the interest of everyone to draw benefit from the experiences and projects of partner countries within the Community.

Educational policy makers in the European Community have long been aware of the value of information concerning innovations and changes introduced in other Member States in order that their own decisions might be well founded on the knowledge of alternative possibilities of practice, and the Member States agreed to promote close cooperation in the field of education at Community level.

In February 1976 the Council of the European Communities and the Ministers of Education adopted an action programme in the field of education. They agreed among other things to set up an information network in order to increase and improve the circulation of information in the area of education policy*.
This information network, known as EURYDICE, is designed therefore to underpin the developing programme of educational cooperation within the European Community.

In accordance with their own distinctive education structures, each Member State has designated at least one National Unit to participate in the network and the Commission of the European Communities has arranged with the European Cultural Foundation the establishment of the **EURYDICE European Unit** which is part of the network and assists the Commission's Education Service. Eurydice is based on the mutual cooperation of the National Units and the European Unit. In addition the latter coordinates and animates the network.

* Official Journal nº C38, 19.02.1976, P1

FOREWORD

Improvement in the quality of education is a concern shared by all the Member States of the European Community. The in-service training of teachers is a determining factor in the pursuit of this objective.

Increasingly rapid changes in society (economic, technological, social, cultural) mean that teachers are constantly faced with new syllabuses and the need for new teaching approaches. There is, however, little new blood entering the profession: teachers in post are relatively young and there are few vacancies for new recruits because of the falling birthrate.

The Commission of the European Communities commissioned this study in order to increase and disseminate knowledge of developments in the field of in-service training in its member countries.

The study underlines the importance of the issue and shows that, despite the particular characteristics of each country's educational system, there are many similarities in the objectives set for education by Member States and in the difficulties encountered when attempting to implement these objectives.

This report of the study was discussed at a meeting of senior officials in Oxford in July 1986, when it aroused great interest.

The whole enquiry will now serve as a basis for any action to be initiated by the Community in the field of the in-service education of teachers.

Commission of the European Communities.

PRESENTATION OF THE STUDY

This study was undertaken between October 1985 and July 1986. Our first task was to work on the available written material, acquiring the necessary preliminary information about member countries' educational systems and the organisation of their teacher training, and a knowledge of other studies already undertaken in this area. We also prepared the guidelines we would follow in collecting and classifying information on member countries. We then visited each country for a period of about a week, meeting senior officials at national and local level and visiting teacher training centres. The visits gave us an understanding of the individual approach of each country to education and enabled us to take account of differences in the context of teacher training when we came to write our final report.

In a period of a week or ten days it was obviously not possible for us to visit all the constituent regions of each country and we are conscious that our study does not reflect the diversity which exists in many Member States. Supplementary information will clearly be needed to complete and enrich this first piece of work.

The scope of our enquiry was restricted to schools and did not include higher education. The teachers concerned are all those in primary and secondary schools. We concentrated particularly, however, on the period of compulsory education.

The text following is the report of our study. Purely descriptive information is given in Part II in the form of diagrams; these enable the reader to take in at a glance the data which we wish to present about the organisation of educational systems, teaching forces, initial training, and, of course, in-service training.

We should like to thank most warmly all those in member countries who welcomed us and gave us such a wealth of information. They were most generous with their time and arranged full and highly organised programmes for us.

We should also like to record our sincerest thanks to the European Unit of EURYDICE in Brussels which provided us with a wide range of information and with a convenient and comfortable place to work.

The Authors,

V. BLACKBURN C. MOISAN

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I – INTRODUCTION

THE IN-SERVICE TRAINING OF TEACHERS, A VITAL FACTOR IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION

The quality of education

Today, more than at any time in its history, Europe needs to make the best possible use of its available human resources if it is to meet the challenge of economic and technological change. The education and training of its young people represent for Europe a vital stake in the future. On the other hand, in a world riven by crisis and political conflict, Europe must continue to base its structures on democratic values and the rights of man. Here too education has an essential role to play: it is through the education of those who will one day become society's decision makers that these values can be preserved and consolidated.

Up to the end of the '70s all member countries of the Community experienced an unprecedented growth in their educational systems: the budget for education was expanded, the school leaving age raised and the percentage of children involved in education increased (1). During the present decade countries are concerned, not so much with problems of quantity and expansion, but with issues of quality. Interest in the issue of quality in education extends far beyond the European Community, as is shown, for example, by the major study currently being undertaken by the OECD.

There are several reasons for this change of perspective:

- the impossibility of increasing the amount of public money spent on education,
- the gradual realisation that all educational problems cannot be resolved solely by financial means,
- the growth in the number of young people seen as educational failures (those leaving school without qualifications, with deficiencies in their basic education, having rejected school completely),
- the inappropriateness of the content and methods of education in a world of increasingly rapid, economic, cultural and technological change.

The twelve members of the European Community have made very different choices in the organisation of their educational systems

(1) See Part II Diagram 1

(2), curricula and teacher training (3). Nevertheless they are all seeking solutions to the problem of quality in education. Among the questions being considered by all member countries are:

- how can an increase in expectations be reconciled with the democratisation of education?
- How can education serve pupils with a wide variety of needs and yet avoid too early specialisation for some?
- How can the objectives, content and approaches of education respond to the fundamental changes which constantly affect our societies?
- How can pupils be given the flexibility they will need during the course of their lives, particularly their working lives?

The teachers

If the response to these major questions depends on the collaboration of all the parties involved (public bodies, teachers, the business world, parents) improvement in the quality of education depends first and foremost on the teachers and their professional competence.

As a recent British report (4) states:

> *"It is the teachers who have to shoulder most of the task of giving to the children and young people in our schools the education which attempts to measure up to the nation's aspirations."*

The statement is valid for all the twelve Member States, even if the teachers in all of them do not have the same scope for initiative as British teachers.

Awareness of the importance of the social and economic responsibilities of the teaching force is emerging more and more clearly in all Member States. This awareness is accompanied by an increase in the demands made on teachers and inevitably, at times, by criticism of them. Paradoxically, however, neither their role nor their duties are any more precisely defined. The concept people have of the teacher's job varies between a very narrow one, confined to the transmission of knowledge, and an unrealistic expectation that the teacher will resolve all the problems of youth. In most countries teachers are asked (whether explicitly or not) to become the agents of change and not merely to be the means through which directives and policies are implemented.

(2) See Part II Diagram No 2

(3) See Part II Diagram Nos 4, 5, 6 and 7 and Part III

(4) *Teaching quality*. See bibliography, No 63

Facing these expectations and changes is a teaching force which is extremely diverse in status, categories (5), training and social origins. Although serious studies are lacking in this area there are two points which can be made about the 3,800,000 European teachers.

Firstly the teaching profession is relatively young and little new blood is entering it. A considerable drop in the school population (especially in the primary sector), due to a fall in the birth rate, is affecting all member countries. This fall comes in most countries after a period of massive recruitment due to the increase in the proportion of young people at school. These two factors have led to an imbalance of age in the teaching force.

Secondly teachers feel that their social status and professional standing are not as high as they used to be. Even if these assertions cannot be proved because of a lack of objective data (particularly on salaries) (6), the feeling exists and there are many indications of the anxiety felt by the members of the profession.

The in-service training of teachers

All the issues discussed in the preceding sections lead us to the question of the training of teachers, the training which prepares them to enter their profession and the training which they receive while they are exercising that profession. Rather than undertaking a study on such a vast and difficult subject as the whole matter of 'teaching quality' the Commission of the European Communities chose a more restricted subject, the in-service training of teachers, recognised as one of the vital factors in bringing about an improvement in the quality of education.

The choice of in-service training was made for the following reasons:

- The concept of an initial training which can prepare someone for his entire professional career is unacceptable to most professions. It is certainly unacceptable in the case of teachers who must remain capable of responding constantly to the changing needs of their pupils and of society.
- The increasingly rapid changes in many areas (economic, technological, social, cultural) mean that teachers must constantly adapt to new curricula and must change their teaching approaches.
- Since the recruitment of new teachers has considerably diminished, the present force, relatively young, will be replaced only very slowly. Moreover among the teachers at present in service many received inadequate initial training.

(5) See Part II Diagram 3

(6) An EC study is, however, in progress on the conditions of service of teachers.

– The existence of serious, regular in-service training can play an important part in the raising of the status of a profession anxious about its social standing and confronted with a multiplicity of expectations.

A crucial problem: the effectiveness of in-service training

In a period when fundamental questions are being asked about the quality of education and when there are severe financial restrictions the central problem of in-service training is the degree of its effectiveness. This of course raises the question as to how to define the role and the task of the teacher. It is not our intention, however, to attempt a definition of the qualities of the good teacher: they are in any case likely to vary greatly from one country to another.

We see the problem of effectiveness as relating to the two following questions:

– The 'critical mass': how can in-service provision be developed and diversified so as to reach a number of teachers sufficient to make the activity worthwhile?
– Changes in attitude: how can the resources, content and types of in-service training be organised so as to bring about a real change in the professional practice of the individual teacher?

It is on these two fundamental questions that the study will concentrate. It does not, however, pretend to find answers. Rather it seeks to draw attention to examples of good practice and to problems, to analyse the principal trends and to highlight certain key factors necessary to the development of in-service training, thus laying the foundation for possible further work by the Community. Clearly, despite the diversity of educational systems, European Community collaboration in this area can only be of benefit to each individual member country.

II – THE CONTEXT

Some comparative data on the educational systems of Member States must necessarily precede any critical analysis of trends in in-service training. We have attempted to present these data in diagrammatic form in order to avoid long descriptions and to give a clear overview. This has necessarily meant simplification, however, and some of the diversity present in individual systems has inevitably been lost.

Part II presents information about the organisation of the educational systems of member countries, about their teaching forces, their systems of initial training and the organisation of their in-service training.

Detailed comparative information was not always easy to obtain. To take diagram 3 as an example: it gives approximate numbers of teachers in Member States (not including those in higher education) and some information about their status, categories, and employers. We think it presents a useful general picture of teachers in Europe; we are conscious, however, that it does not provide a detailed profile of each country's teaching force.

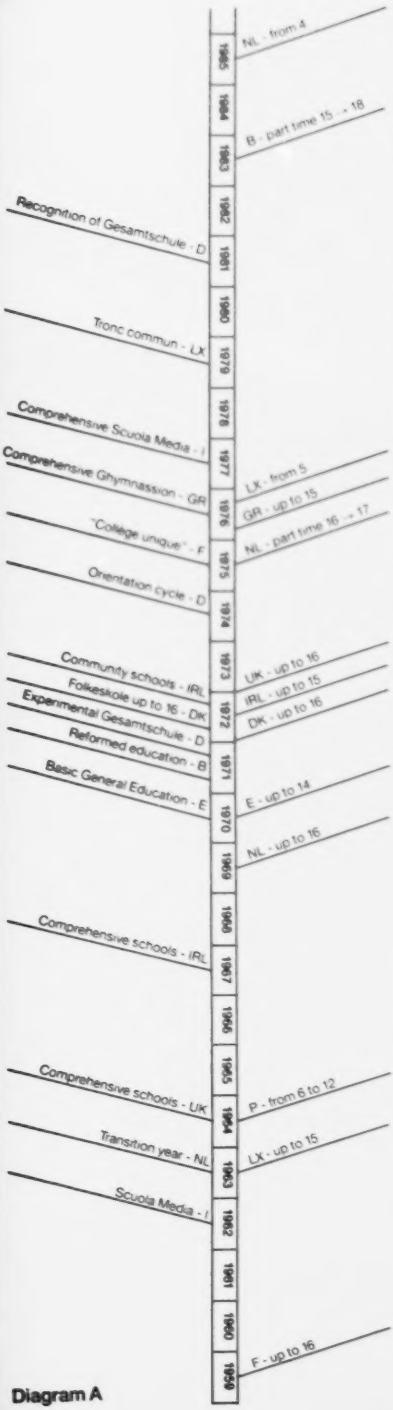

Diagram A

Diagra
Evolution and p

Transition from quant
to qualitative c

The Sixties and Seventies

Once compulsory schooling had been introduced for 100% of primary pupils the quantitative development of educational systems was characterised by:

- massive and regular growth of the proportion of the gross national product devoted to education;
- systematic raising of the school leaving age (see diagram A);
- large increases in the numbers of pupils in secondary education (especially in the 14-18 age range);
- raising of the age at which specialised vocational education began for the large number of pupils who would formerly have had only a very short period of general education.

The principal tend
education

- **Modernisation of the content of primary education and the raising of the level of competence of primary teachers**

Here it is not a question of the reform of the structure of primary education which is traditional and well established, but rather of the modification of the curriculum (as in Italy and France for example) and of the reform of initial teacher training (in France, Greece, UK, Belgium and Italy).

- **The reformulation of the aims of compulsory secondary education**

The structure of education for 12-16 year olds is still in a state of flux. Some countries have not as yet made a choice between a common curriculum for all and separate streams for different categories of pupils in particular those aged 14-16. Those countries which have definitely opted for one of the two possible models are endeavouring to modify the aims of secondary education and the methods of evaluating it so as to reconcile raising levels of expectation with greater democratisation of education.

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m n' 1
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itative development
onsiderations

The Eighties

The quality of education is gradually becoming member countries' central preoccupation. Debate is often heated and it is not always easy to arrive at an objective statement of the issues involved. Among them, however, are undoubtedly the following:

- financial restrictions which prevent further investment in education;
- a disturbing growth in the number of young people unemployed;
- difficulties in adapting the aims, methods and content of training to the increasingly rapid developments in economic, cultural and technical areas;
- problems in the 12-16 phase of secondary education often arising from structures which are ill adapted to this particular age group (rise in school rolls, mixed ability classes, under-expectation).

encies in present
al policies

- **The transition between school and work**

Under this heading come all the reforms in vocational and general education: linked work and training; compulsory part-time training; changes in the content of the curriculum; certification of courses; raising the status of vocational education; development of careers education. A pilot community programme is in progress at present.

- **Integration into the education system of the children of migrant workers**

The principal measures concern the development of the support needed to help children to overcome cultural and linguistic difficulties, teacher training and the maintenance of mother tongue and culture. (This was the subject of an EC directive and of a community programme.)

- **The introduction of new technology into education**

Particularly important is information technology which may be introduced as a new subject or as a new teaching aid. In some countries the whole curriculum is being modified to reflect the new developments in technology.

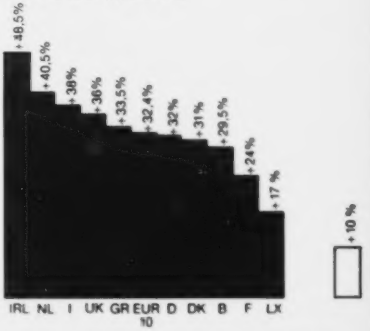
School population

These two diagrams show:

- the massive increase in the secondary school population in the seventies.
  There has been a slight drop in this population in the 10 Member Countries since 1981.
- the reduction in the primary school population which has continued beyond 1982.

DIAGRAM B

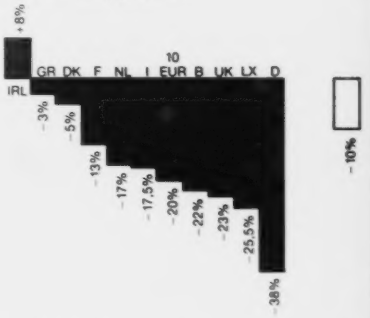
Secondary school rolls from 1970 to 1981 (1) EUR IO



(1) Year when secondary school rolls were at their highest EUR IO - Source: EUROSTAT

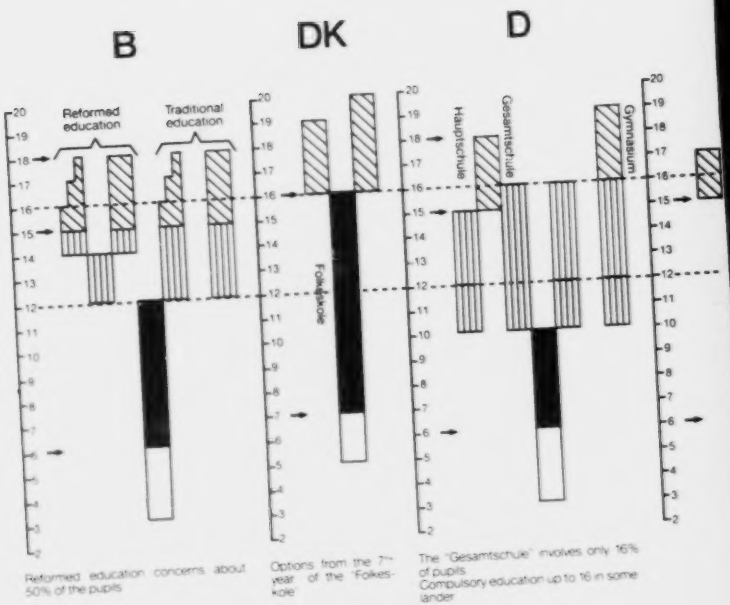
DIAGRAM C

Primary school rolls from 1970 to 1982 (2) EUR IO



(2) Most recent year for which reliable statistics exist - Source: EUROSTAT

Spain and Portugal are not shown here because there are as yet no reliable statistics for the 12 Member Countries. The secondary school population increased steeply in these two countries also, however, from 1970 to 1981.

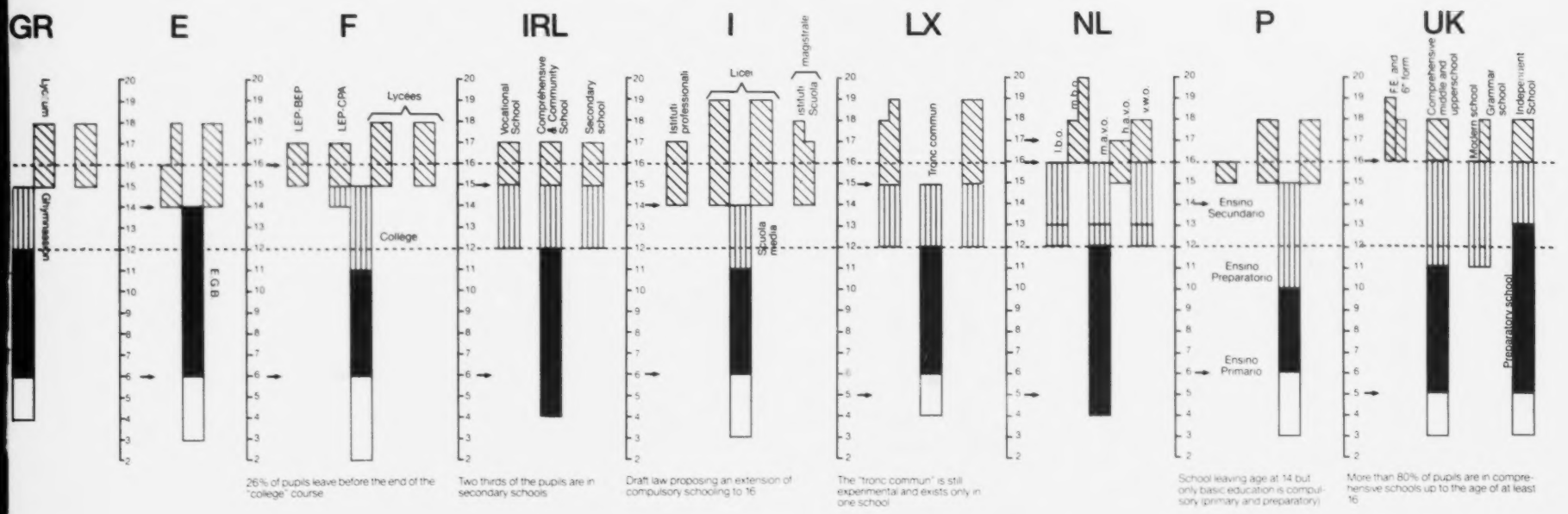


This diagram represents a simplified version of the organisation of the countries' education systems. It makes possible comparison of the ages at which schooling begins, its length and the types of school available. Given the complexity of the systems (particularly at upper secondary level) all the details of organisation cannot be included. We have therefore chosen to highlight three fundamental characteristics:

- **Compulsory schooling:** ages when it begins and ends, its length and whether it is full-time or part-time.
- **The principal levels of education:** pre-school, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary. (These make it easier to understand categories of teachers.)
- **The principal kinds of schooling:**
  a. Comprehensive schools for all pupils where no choice has yet been made about pupils' futures.
  b. Specialised schooling for which there is selection or choice:
     1. general education the aim of which is often access to higher education
     2. vocational education the aim of which is preparation for the world of work (or technical education giving access to higher education).

Diagram nr 2

ified presentation of the educational systems of the twelve member-countries of the E.C.



Comments on compulsory schooling

- All the children of the European Community are at school between the ages of seven and 14 (1).
- Full-time compulsory schooling lasts for at least six years and for an average of nine years.
- Three countries, Belgium, Germany and Holland have recently instituted part-time compulsory schooling beyond the age of 16.

(1) Exception: Portugal, where pupils can leave school at 12.

The two horizontal lines (age 12 and age 16) show the following:

Before the age of 12

In all countries pupils receive the same kind of education without any specialisation (1). This education may be given in primary schools, in comprehensive secondary schools or in the form of an orientation or observation cycle in different types of secondary schools (2).

After the age of 16

Comprehensive schools have disappeared (3); pupils are now divided into those receiving general education, those receiving vocational education and those who have left school. Education is no longer for all pupils, but is addressed to particular categories of the population.

Between 12 and 16

This is the time when choices are made about pupils' futures. There is great diversity in the different systems. Several countries (4) have extended compulsory education, merged their existing general and vocational streams and created a unified comprehensive school (or in the case of Denmark prolonged primary education) making education compulsory up to the age of 14, 15 or 16.
Others (5) have done the opposite, have maintained the existing streams and have increased the possibilities of some transfer from one stream to another. Some have experimented with comprehensive schools but have not adopted them throughout the system.

(1) Except for the English grammar schools which begin at 11 but cater for only a small minority of pupils.
(2) Germany.
(3) Except English comprehensive schools which cater for children up to 18.
(4) DK, GR, E, F, I, P, UK for the majority of pupils.
(5) B, D, IRL, LX, NL.

Key

- General Streams: Level III Upper Secondary; Level II Lower Secondary
- Vocational Streams: Level III Upper Secondary; Level II Lower Secondary
- Comprehensive Schools (or orientation cycles): Level III Upper Secondary; Level II Lower Secondary; Level I Primary; Level O Preschool
- End of part time compulsory education
- Beginning and end of full time compulsory education

Diagram n° 3

Teachers
Status - Categories - Employers

	B	DK	D	GR	E	F	IRL	
Number of teachers Scale: = 100 000 teachers Employers The State Autonomous or regional community Local authority Private organisation								
Number of teachers	186 000	70 000	554 000	78 000	370 000	730 000	40 000	89
Status (of the majority)	NON CIVIL SERVANTS (Those employed by the State or by local authorities have a status similar to that of Civil servants)	CIVIL SERVANTS (national status)	CIVIL SERVANTS (national status)	CIVIL SERVANTS (except private sector)	CIVIL SERVANTS (under contract in the private sector)	CIVIL SERVANTS (except private)	NON CIVIL SERVANTS	CIVIL SERVANTS (except private secto
Principal categories	**By level of teaching** • Primary teachers Level O & I (multidisciplinary) • "Regents" Level II (often two disciplines) • Graduates Level III (one discipline)	**By level of teaching** • Single teaching force for the Folkeskole, Level I & II (multidisciplinary & with two disciplines) • Secondary teachers Level III (one discipline) • Vocational teachers Level III (one discipline)	**By level of teaching and by type of school** • Primary teachers Level I (Grundschule) • Hauptschule teachers Level II • Realschule teachers Level II • Gymnasium teachers Level II & III • Higher technical and vocational teachers Level III	**By level of teaching** • Primary teachers Level O & I (multidisciplinary) • Secondary teachers Level II & III	**By level of teaching** • EGB teachers Level O - I - II (multidisciplinary & with two disciplines) • Secondary teachers Level III (one discipline) • Vocational teachers Level III	**By level of teaching and by qualifications** • Primary teachers - Level O - I (multidisciplinary) • PEGC - Level II (two disciplines) • Teachers in the LEP - Level II & III • Teachers with the CAPES - Level II & III (one discipline) • Teachers with the "agrégation" - Level III • Technical teachers - Level III	**By level of teaching** • Primary teachers Level O & I • Secondary teachers - Level II & III	**By level of teachi** • Primary teachers - • Middle school tea (two or more disciplin • Upper secondary t (one discipline)

EUR: There are about 3 800 000 teachers in the E.E.C.

Half of them are employed by the state
17% by local authorities
18% by federal authorities or autonomous communities
15% by private organisations

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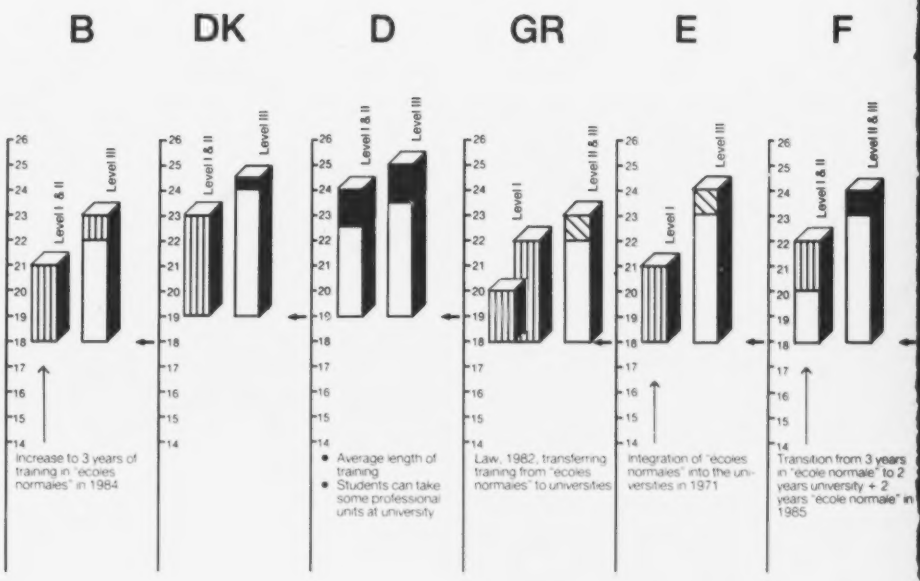
I	L	NL	P	UK
	5% private	Estimate % State		
0 000	3 800	200 000	109 000	554 000
·)	CIVIL SERVANTS (except private sector)	NON CIVIL SERVANTS (except in State schools)	CIVIL SERVANTS (except private sector)	NON CIVIL SERVANTS
ng Level O & I (multidisciplinary) hers - Level II el) eachers Level III	**By level of teaching** • Primary teachers and principal primary teachers - Level O & I • Secondary teachers - Level II & III • Technical and vocational teachers Level II & III	**By level of teaching** • Primary teachers Level O & I • Lower secondary teachers (12-16) - Level II • Upper secondary teachers Level III	**By level of teaching and qualifications** • Primary teachers Level O & I (multidisciplinary) • Preparatory teachers Level II (two disciplines) • Secondary teachers Level II & III (one discipline)	**By responsibility** • Qualified teachers • Teachers with a post of responsibility – Head of department – Deputy head teacher – Head teacher **and by level of teaching** • Primary teachers Level O - I - II • Secondary teachers Level II - III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Level II & III
Level I
Level III
Level I & II
Level II & III
increase to 3 years of training in "ecoles normales" in 1984
• Average length of training
• Students can take some professional units at university
Law, 1982, transferring training from "ecoles normales" to universities
Integration of "ecoles normales" into the universities in 1971
Transition from 3 years in "ecole normale" to 2 years university + 2 years "ecole normale" in 1985

This diagram represents a simplified version of the organisation of initial teacher training in each country. It gives an overall view of:

- the length of training (age at which it begins and ends)
- the institutions where it takes place: university, non-university institution, school (indicated by colours)
- the extent to which the training is professional:
  1) total absence of professional content (white) where future teachers follow a course not specifically oriented towards teacher training,
  2) some specialisation, often more theoretical than practical,
  3) a substantial proportion of practical, professional work,
  4) training based on work in school.
- The categories of students are indicated by the level (I, II, III: see diagram No. 1) for which they are training to teach.

① The length of training

The length of the training of future teachers and the age at which students begin their courses can be interpreted in two different ways: ←

- If one takes as a starting point the end of secondary education (corresponding to the age at which students enter higher education, indicated by ← in the diagram), then the average age at which courses begin is 18 and the length is as shown in text No. 2 (three-four years for primary, over five years for secondary).
- If one takes as starting point the year when the student chooses teaching as his profession and begins specific training for it (■ ■ ■) the interpretation is completely different:

For primary teaching: the average age when the student begins his course is a little over 18 and the average length of the course is a little under three years.

For secondary teaching: the average starting age is between 21 and 22 and the average length of the course is just over a year.

② The duality of initial training systems

No country has instituted a single initial training system for the whole teaching profession. They all have a dual system involving two models (1).

Model 1 (on the left in the diagrams) for primary teachers (Level I)*.

- Average length (after the end of secondary education) (2) between three and four years.
- Practical professional training predominates. The training institution is in the majority of cases a specialised non-university institution. (The only real exception is Germany.) Three countries (Spain, Greece and France) have reformed their systems and have integrated all or part of their training into the universities. Italy is preparing a reform of this kind.

Model 2 (on the right in the diagrams) for upper secondary teachers (Level III).

- Average length (after the end of secondary education): over five years.
- Total absence of professional content for an average of four years, followed in half the countries by an intensive period of practical work (between six and eighteen months) in a school.
- Institution: universities.

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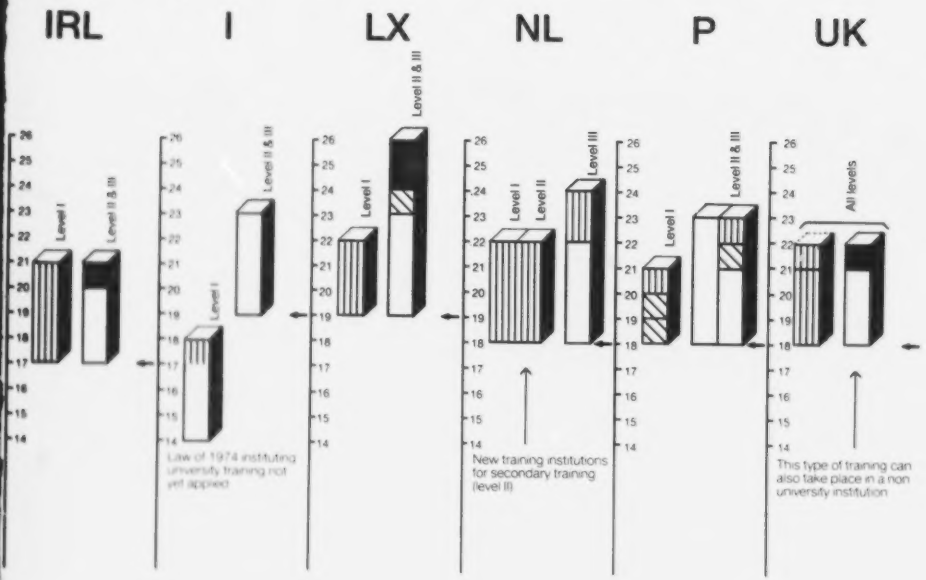
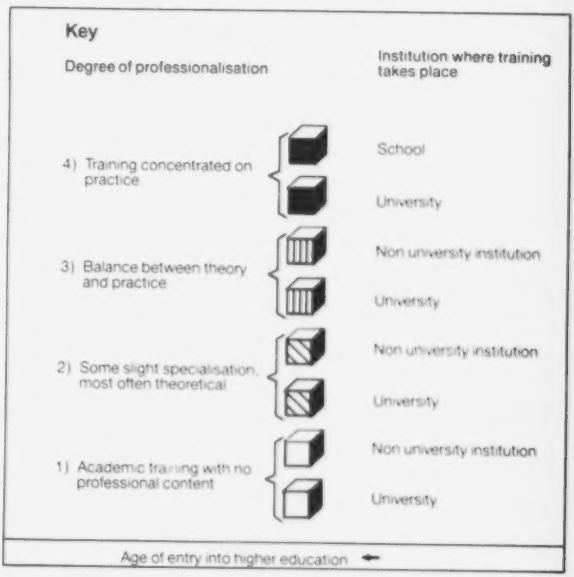
Diagram n° 4
nitial training



Teachers for the lower secondary school (Level II) are trained:
- either according to model 1 (Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Netherlands)
- or according to model 2 (Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxemburg, Portugal)
- or according to both models (United Kingdom (1), France where two categories of teachers teach in the colleges).

(1) The UK is an exception as the two systems (BEd and PGCE) can be followed by primary and secondary teachers. The majority of secondary teachers follow model 2, however.

(2) With the exception of Italy, where the training is within the time-span of secondary education.



③ The broad trends in the evolution of systems of initial training

- A considerable drop in the number of teachers required (at primary level in all countries) due to falling school rolls. This has led to acute employment problems and to the closure of a substantial number of specialised institutions of initial training.
- Lengthening of the period of initial training for primary teachers, either by adding another year of the same kind or by delaying the start of specialised training.
- Awareness of the need to raise the level of education and subject knowledge of primary teachers. This has led to an increased participation by universities in the training process.
- Awareness of the lack of professional training of secondary teachers (Level III and sometimes Level II). In most countries this awareness has not as yet led to effective reforms (except in the Netherlands and Portugal).

Diagr

Conditions for i

	B	DK	D	GR	E
Training in school time (or with time in lieu) ■ Always ▥ Often ▨ Rarely □ Never	▨ No replacement	■ Replacement financed by local authorities	▥ No replacement	▥ Replacement	▥ Replacement (sabbatical years)
Rights and duties of teachers with reference to in service training ■ Statutory right and duty ☒ Existence of authorisation for release from school □ No right, no duty	☒ Authorisation for release for one day a month for primary and nursery teachers	□	■	□	☒
Existence of compulsory in service training ⊢ No compulsory in-service training ● Some compulsory in-service training	● "Conferences pedagogiques" organised by inspectors	⊢	⊢	⊢	●
Effects of in-service training on careers of teachers ⊢ None ● Some training which affects teachers' careers	⊢	● Higher level studies leading to a post as "seminarium" teacher or school psychologist	⊢	⊢	⊢

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'am n' 5

n-service training

F	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK
Replacement (not systematic in secondary)	Replacement			No replacement (NVO project)		Replacement (not systematic)
Right of primary teachers to one week a year	3 days release for teachers who participate in summer schools	Teachers have an allocation of 20 hours a month for various tasks including in-service training				
"Conferences pedagogiques" organised by inspectors		Draft plan for in-service training for all primary teachers	"Conferences pedagogiques" organised by inspectors			
	In-service B. Ed.				Initial training qualification can be taken while in service	Some long full-time courses lead to a university diploma

Diagram n° 6

Types of activity - Categories of trainers

"Cascade-model"

Training the trainers - Multiplication

1st phase
- Contributors: universities or ministries of education
- Participants: future trainers
- Method: techniques used in adult education - intensive training
- Length: long - with follow up

2nd phase
- Contributors: trainers from phase 1
- Participants: all the teachers involved
- Methods and content prepared in phase 1 (coordinated nationally)

"Conférences pédagogiques" and other courses

Information - Retraining

- Contributors: inspectors - advisers
- Participants: groups of teachers from the same school or from neighbouring schools
- Frequency: sometimes on a regular basis
- Length: short (a half day, three full days, 10 weeks part time etc.)
- Place: school or elsewhere
- Methods: talks, discussions, working groups, model lessons
- Sometimes obligatory

Action

Transformation of Feed back into e

- Contributors: university te
- Participants: small groups
- At regular intervals outsid
- Length: year or more
- Place: schools and other
- Methods: practical applic teaching materials
- Follow up and evaluation

Short co

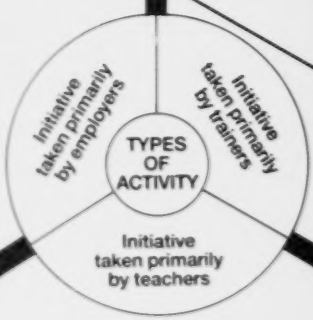
Information - Devel

- Contributors: various
- Participants: individu
- Length: from hal
- Place: outs
- Follow (some

Training specific groups of teachers

Preparation or accompaniment of an educational reform

- Contributors: variety of teams
- Participants: all the teachers involved
- Planning: long term, often over several years
- Length of training: variable
- Methods: pilot project followed by gradual expansion - retraining of a whole category of teachers - local centres given the responsibility of implementation - central coordination


Initiative taken primarily by employers
Initiative taken primarily by trainers
TYPES OF ACTIVITY
Initiative taken primarily by teachers

School based training

Collective projects (for a group of teachers or a whole schoo

- Contributors: various, on demand
- Participants: all or some of the teachers in the school
- Length: very variable - rarely in shool time
- Place: the school, occasionally elsewhere
- Methods: various activities arising from an analysis of needs, self-development - lectures in school - observation of each others' lessons - production of teaching materials - evaluation - often internal

Teachers Centre or Resource Centre

Exchange of experience - Analysis of needs - Response to demand - Circulat

- Contributors: centre personnel, teachers in the locality
- Participants: teachers or school staffs in the locality
- Length: very variable - rarely in school time
- Place: the centre or schools
- Methods: varied activities - analysis of needs - working groups - visits to other schools - production of teaching materials - organisation of networks of resources - profiting from and capitalising on others' experience - information - documentation

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- Priorities

research

professional practice
ducational research
cturers
of teachers
school time
centres
ation of research - production of
in general)

Sabbatical year

Personal development -
In depth study of a particular subject

- Contributors: university lecturers
- Participants: individual teachers
- Length: between 6 months and 2 years full time, with replacement
- Place: outside school
- Methods: course - thesis - study trip
- Training culminating in a diploma

urse

pment of skills

al teachers or schools
f a day to a week
de school
p and evaluation
times)

Long course

Development of skills - Retraining

- Contributors: various
- Participants: individual teachers
- Length: may be 6 weeks full time, 2 hours a week outside school time etc

Summer school

Professional training - Study in depth of a subject -
Exchanges of information, experience

- Contributors: university lecturers - associations - others
- Participants: teachers or groups of teachers
- Methods: lectures - discussions - workshops - follow up and evaluation (in general)
- Length: from a week to a month outside school time
- Place: outside school

ion of information

Categories of trainers (1)

- Lecturers in specialised in-service institutes
- University lecturers
- Lecturers in initial training institutions
- Inspectors
- Teachers
- Professional associations and private organisations

Most common priorities and content

- Use of new technology (information technology)
- Teaching techniques (meeting children's individual needs, evaluation, curriculum development)
- Education of children with special needs
- Multi-cultural education
- Management (for head teachers)
- Technological and vocational education
- Careers and the world of work
- Retraining in teachers' own disciplines, particularly science and modern languages
- Training linked with reform of primary curriculum

(1) See part three (3)

A Finance

B Responsibilities

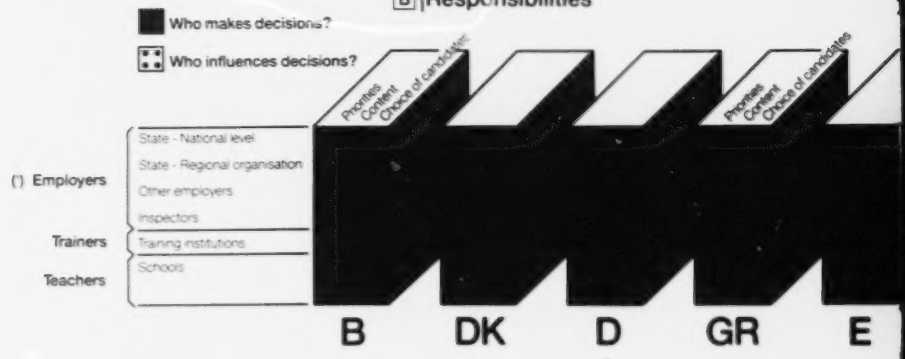

Diagram A:

The financing of in-service training is an extremely complex matter.
This first diagram attempts to show, however: – the extent to which teachers' expenses are in general r
– the degree to which training institutions control their ow

Diagram B:

The second diagram attempts to give an indication of the role of various interested groups in the decision

(1) See diagram n° 3.

(2) In Germany, each Land assumes the role of state with reference to the school system and the in-service training of teachers.

(3) See part III. ①.
Under new arrangements LEAS will have direct control over practically all the funding for in-service and will negotiate courses with institutions. The State retains some resources for direct funding of courses.

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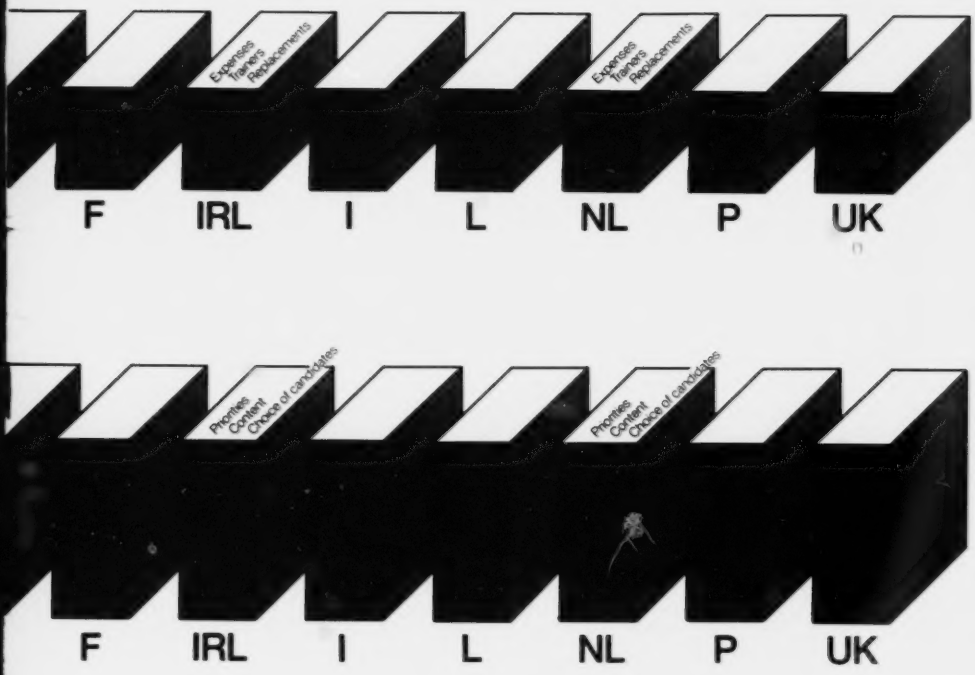
Diagram n° 7
on of in-service training



et by employers (state or others)
n budgets

making process which underlies provision

III – TRENDS: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS

1. In-service training: a priority area, but with many unsolved problems

There are many indications that governments are currently aware of the importance of in-service training and are concerned to make provision more effective. These indications take various forms. The budget for in-service training has been increased in many countries (Spain, for instance, France, Italy and the United Kingdom). New structures have been created to coordinate in-service training: in France 'missions' have been established in each Academy or administrative region to coordinate in-service work; in Spain a rapid development of teachers' centres is in progress; in Italy centres (IRRSAE) have been created in each region to organise in-service activity and to act as a focal point for regional and national initiatives. Reforms which run counter to long established traditions have been launched: England and Wales are moving towards new funding arrangements which will give to local education authorities (LEAs) the responsibility for coordinating provision; in Denmark the initial teacher training institutes have been invited to contribute to in-service training, formerly the monopoly of the Royal Danish School(1). A national committee was appointed in Ireland in 1980 to make recommendations on in-service education. Other examples could be cited of a desire for change, for more coordinated and cost-effective provision.

Many of these initiatives are still, however, at an early stage, not fully implemented or with incipient problems to be resolved. The recommendations of the Irish committee for a higher investment in in-service training and for a central coordinating committee have yet to become reality. Often no institution is clearly charged with the responsibility for in-service training and there is no specific budget for it. This is one of the problems faced by the organisers of in-service training in Belgium. New structures have not yet attained maturity and are not in a position to fulfil the objectives originally formulated for them. The missions in France do not as yet play a leading role in the primary field and generally lack human and material resources. Some of the IRRSAE in Italy have no complement of permanent staff and most are not yet integrated into existing local structures. In Denmark there is concern that the introduction of new providers of in-service training will fragment provision. In England and Wales the extent to which the contribution of higher education will be integrated

(1) Danmarks Lærerhøjskole

into in-service provision by local authorities remains to be worked out in practice. Innovation, whether it uses existing structures or establishes new ones, is never easily achieved and often provokes conflict. Furthermore, the present period of financial stringency is not favourable to massive investment and it is difficult for countries to keep in-service training high on their lists of priorities. We have seen in the past initiatives which were universally acclaimed, such as the induction year in the United Kingdom and the right of primary teachers in France to 36 weeks training in the course of their career, disappear as they were overtaken by other priorities.

2. Aims and objectives of in-service training

One factor which inhibits progress is lack of clarity on the part of those involved in in-service training about its aims and objectives. It is stating the obvious to say that in-service activity must have as its overall aim the improvement of the professional competence of the teacher and hence the quality of education of the children. Yet too often this aim is buried beneath the plethora of objectives of the providers who transmit the knowledge and skills they have, whether or not these have relevance for the teachers who form their audience. This may even be so in new and costly programmes of training such as those in information technology. Courses in information technology all too often give teachers some familiarity with the computer and an introduction to programming but fail to discuss with them the educational objectives of introducing computers into the classroom and fail to define the nature of the concepts and skills which they wish their pupils to acquire.

There is, of course, a fundamental difficulty in defining professional competence. In countries with a strong tradition of subject teaching, professional competence is seen, particularly at secondary level, simply as mastery of one's subject. In-service training may then be confined to increasing the teacher's knowledge of his discipline – a modern language, for instance, or mathematics. There are, however, other factors which go to make up the professional competence of a teacher: awareness of children's intellectual, physical and emotional development, knowledge of learning processes, skill in planning lessons, presenting material and interacting with pupils, managing a class which contains children of varying interests, abilities and needs. There must be recognition that professional competence includes these dimensions if in-service provision is to be effective.

One country which has a strong tradition of subject teaching, France, gave such recognition in its project for the 'rénovation des collèges', implemented through the newly established missions. The collèges, newly created comprehensive schools for lower secondary children,

were staffed by teachers with a variety of experience but for the most part unused to teaching the whole range of ability. The project aimed to help them to look beyond subject barriers to the development of the whole child, to recognise the individual needs of their pupils and to see the need for new approaches to teaching now that their classes contained a wider range of ability.

In some countries, the United Kingdom for instance, such considerations already form the main thrust of in-service work. Courses may be general or subject specific. Subject specific courses treat in more depth the way children develop concepts and skills particular to a branch of knowledge and help teachers to acquire techniques for developing and presenting subject material. Such courses are particularly highly developed in Germany and Spain, as well as in the United Kingdom.

Primary in-service training tends always to be nearer to the classroom and more child-centred, but here, too, the need for primary teachers to acquire subject content in a range of disciplines can obscure the issues connected with children's learning.

There must, then, be on the part of the organisers of in-service training a clear view of its overall aims, a recognition that its raison d'être is the improvement of work in the classroom and that the objectives of each in-service activity must be to effect a development of some aspect of the professional competence of the participants.

3. Involvement of teachers in in-service training

The main problem which all countries have in common is the involvement of a sufficient number of teachers in in-service training to make the process effective. It is difficult to gather precise comparative information about the percentage of teachers who take part in in-service training, but in all countries there is a significant number who never participate. The figure may be as low as 10% or as high as 50%. Even in Denmark, where there is a strong tradition of in-service work and where everything is done to facilitate it, organisers estimate at 15% the number of teachers who never take part in in-service activity. There will always be enthusiastic teachers who keep up to date with their subject and work on the development of new approaches and materials, but if they are in the minority in a school their efforts are negated by the conservatism of the majority. This is, in fact, the problem of the critical mass, the key question as to how to involve the majority of the teaching force in in-service work.

Teachers are adults and as such must be involved in any activity in which they take part: in its conception and planning, in the process itself and in evaluation of it. Firstly they must be involved in the definition of needs to which in-service provision is a response.

Definition of needs is, however, far from being a simple matter. There are the needs of the education system as a whole, of the school and of the individual teacher. These may coincide, but on the other hand they may be different, or may be perceived as different by the teacher. A definition of needs by an administrator, not directly concerned with schools, may represent a rational and forward-looking policy, but unless it is seen as such by teachers it will not be successfully realised.

> *Defining the needs of a whole school staff is a fairly well established tradition in the United Kingdom(2). Local authorities often require from headteachers a staff development plan on which in-service training for the teachers in the school can be based. In the case of a large secondary school the working party of staff will usually make recommendations which may include teachers undergoing training in order to undertake new responsibilities for, perhaps, language across the curriculum or information technology. Having undergone training teachers will then take the lead in introducing innovative practices into the schools. The French plan for the rénovation des collèges was based on a similar definition of needs by the school. In the Netherlands the Primary Education Act of 1985 requires each primary school to produce a plan for the organisation and content of teaching in the school, a plan in which in-service needs are implicit.*

Whether the school is primary or secondary the process of arriving at a definition of in-service needs by the staff is a complex and delicate one and may need the intervention of an outsider. It is easy for a group of people who have worked together for years to become a closed circle, impervious to outside influences, with procedures, approaches and materials which work smoothly but which take no account of environmental and social changes. They need an outsider to set their school in a wider perspective. In most countries the outsider will be a member of the inspectorate or the employers' advisory service. In Germany it is more likely to be a member of an in-service training institute. In Spain, it could be an experienced teacher seconded to a teachers' centre. Whatever the role of the individual in the educational system as a whole he or she needs vision, practical experience and negotiating skills if help is to be given to a school staff to make an honest appraisal of their in-service needs.

Logically any process of arriving at a definition of school needs should be based on a definition of the needs of the individual teacher. This is not always the case, however. It is easy for a teacher to acceed to a policy in which he may be minimally involved while either being

(2) See, for instance *Arrangements for the staff development of teachers*; see bibliography No 62

convinced that he has no need to engage in in-service activity or while being reluctant to admit gaps in his subject knowledge or anxieties about his professional skills. The individual teacher, too, needs access to someone with competence in his own special field with whom he can discuss his work frankly and fully, be it a colleague, an inspector or an adviser.

The definition of needs is a complex matter, but once the individual teacher, the group of teachers or the whole school staff have decided how they wish to proceed to whom do they turn for advice? How do the providers of in-service training ensure the participants' continued involvement in the activity? These are the crucial questions to which the systems in each member country are obliged to respond.

4. The organisation of in-service training

If response is to be effective channels of communication need to be clear and action swift. Delay in meeting requests for courses can only lead to discouragement. In the United Kingdom the possibility of swift response exists through the LEA advisory services which can offer individual advice and organise courses within a short time span. In France, for secondary schools, swiftness of response from the teachers seconded to the missions is a high priority. In Italy many of the IRRSAE are poised to respond quickly, but there exists also the freedom which schools have to ask lecturers of their choice to provide courses. In Ireland teachers can make direct application to teachers' centres for the courses they would like, but must contribute to lecturers' fees. In Germany requests through local centres receive rapid response through local networks. Flexibility to respond to need as defined at school level is essential. Good school-focused training, where teachers work together to define their objectives and improve their teaching approaches is one of the most interesting and worthwhile developments in in-service work. If, however, provision is made only in terms of response, then the danger is that it will lack coherence and will not be cost effective. There are also the needs of the system as perceived by the employers to be taken into account.

The organisation of in-service provision is very different in Member States: it differs in scale, scope, coherence of the offering and possibilities for flexibility.

> *For example in Germany each Land has an institute for in-service training with one or more residential centres and a network of local and regional day centres. A nucleus of full-time staff is supported by vast numbers of teachers who make part-time contributions. The institute decides on priorities in consultation with the Ministry and with representatives of teachers, teacher trainers and higher education institutions. Groups of teachers put forward their suggestions through*

the local centres which are often asked by the institute to provide the courses or workshops requested. To take the Länder of Hesse and Rheinland-Pfalz as examples, each institute has a team of 30 or more in-service tutors whose sole responsibility is in-service training. These tutors are in a position to give all their time and energy to contact with teachers, to organising courses and to coordinating the efforts of part-time colleagues who lead most of the workshops and courses provided. Contact with school staffs is guaranteed and full use is made of the commitment of enthusiastic teachers. The needs of the system and of the schools appear to be effectively reconciled.

Denmark has a very long tradition of provision for in-service training. Its national institute, founded in the last century, has 180 full-time staff. Through its centres in all parts of the country and with the assistance of part-time staff it offers a coherent, logical programme. It is interesting, however, that greater flexibility is currently being sought through the additional provision of locally based and funded courses which involve the employer in decision making. In-service provision in which the employer takes no part runs the risk of creating a division between the schools and the system as a whole.

In the United Kingdom each local authority has a team of advisers/inspectors who, supported by advisory teachers, visit schools, see classes in action and advise teachers about professional development. Based on their knowledge of the schools they provide courses, sometimes in collaboration with each other and with universities and colleges. At present provision is often uneven but the new funding arrangements which give the local authorities the sole responsibility for provision should make coherence more possible. This system has great potential in that those who help to define needs at classroom level are those who make the provision.

Large centralised countries have problems of their own. Inevitably central governments will have priorities which they will wish in-service providers to adopt and these may well cut across priorities defined at regional level. Examples are the 'informatique pour tous' programme in France where every teacher is undergoing a course of at least a week's duration in computer awareness. Or the project aimed at retraining all Italy's primary teachers to implement the new primary curriculum. Such vast projects require a level of resourcing at regional level which central government has not always provided and the regional coordinator, the chef de mission or the director of the IRRSAE has a difficult task in reconciling national and regional priorities. Regional organisations can flourish in a centralised state, however. Spain, where the education system is moving towards decentralisation, provides an interesting example: the region of Catalonia, with the help of three university institutes of education,

organises in-service training for all the teachers in the region through a network of local centres.

An important aspect of the organisation of in-service provision which emerges from the above discussion is that of scale. The number of teachers for whom provision is being made must be sufficiently small for the organisation to remain in close touch with them but sufficiently large for the provision to permit a range of contributions and to be of high quality. The optimum size for an organisation is a matter for discussion: a smaller country, a Land, an Academy or a large local authority could be comparable in this respect.

5. The teacher trainers

We now turn to the teacher trainers who give the courses and to the courses themselves. The involvement of the majority of teachers in in-service activity can only be brought about if courses offered are stimulating and relevant and this depends on the people giving them.

There appear to be five categories of in-service teacher trainers with, however, some overlap between the categories. The first category consists of the full-time members of in-service institutes or teachers' centres which exist in many countries. They are in general good classroom practitioners with high qualifications who, before appointment, built up a reputation for interesting practice and for being able to work with colleagues. Their role is to work with teachers, to organise in-service activity and keep in touch with developments in their field, but not, on the whole, to engage in research.

Next there are lecturers in universities and higher education, one of whose primary responsibilities is research. Those specialising in the educational sciences are concerned with research in matters affecting schools but not necessarily with interaction in the classroom here and now. They may be interested in trends in education from a sociological or philosophical point of view or their research may deal with learning theory and entail experimental work in the classroom. Their role is not necessarily to be involved directly with the in-service training of teachers, although many are. Their work does have direct implications, however, for in-service education. Higher education lecturers in subject disciplines have no formal role in in-service work, although some welcome involvement in it, seeing the process of education as a continuous one, through school to university and beyond. University research which constantly reviews and adds to human knowledge after all affects the content of what is taught in school.

The third category, initial teacher trainers, often have a high degree of commitment to in-service work. Their background varies according to the system of initial training in their country. In Germany,

for phase 2 training, they are practising teachers, chosen for the high quality of their teaching and their ability to work with adults, and continuing to teach classes in school for up to half their time. In most countries initial trainers are lecturers in higher education, the degree to which they are integrated in the system of higher education varying from one country to another. Their qualifications and experience vary greatly: some resemble the in-service training lecturers in category one, some are more akin to the university lecturers in our second category. In the United Kingdom teacher trainers ideally have both practical experience and high academic qualifications. In the French écoles normales academic qualifications have been of primary importance. In the Netherlands practical classroom skills are considered more important than high subject qualifications or research interests. Because of their function and their preoccupation with the training of students who will shortly become teachers, initial trainers have much to contribute to in-service training. In Portugal they have been given the full responsibility of developing new in-service programmes. The extent of the contribution of initial trainers is inevitably limited, however, by their commitment to their own students. The recent fall in student numbers has made available a resource which has not, however, always been fully exploited. In some countries, Spain and Belgium for example, primary teacher trainers take no part in in-service work.

Inspectors and advisers have a crucial role to play in in-service work. Like the lecturers in in-service institutes they have usually been appointed because of their distinguished practice in the classroom. They are the people who see the schools, visit classes and are in a position to generalise about the needs of schools and teachers. There are two levels at which their advice and participation are needed: at government level and at local or regional level. In some countries two different categories of inspectors fulfil these two functions:

> *Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMI) in the United Kingdom, for instance, advise the government, and local education authority inspectors the LEAs; inspecteurs généraux in France have a national brief, inspecteurs pédagogiques régionaux and inspecteurs departmentaux de l'éducation nationale a regional and local one. In other countries one inspectorate will perform both functions: in the Netherlands, for instance, and Ireland or Belgium.*

The interesting point for this study is how the inspectors in the field who know the schools well feed back that knowledge into the in-service provision.

> *The structure of the United Kingdom's LEAs allows very rapid feedback. The local inspectors are people who decide which courses*

shall be offered and also, in many cases, the people who run them. Their problem is often the administrative load which they carry in addition to their in-service one. Similarly in Ireland it is the inspectors who organise and give the vacation courses which form the main stay of provision. In-service training in Luxembourg is a product of collaboration between inspectors and initial trainers. In other countries the inspectorate's role is rather a coordinating one, as in the Netherlands, where inspectors act as the link between schools and the initial training institutions which give the courses. In other countries again, France, for example, the inspector is seen as giving advice on the occasion of his visits to teachers but not as taking a leading role in the provision of courses.

The fifth category of teacher trainers comprises the teachers themselves. The use made by the German institutes of part-time teachers has already been described. Teachers' centres in the United Kingdom were based on the premise that teachers could work together and help each other. The appointment of advisory teachers, who work with inspectors but have no function as appraisers of performance, carries this provision one stage further. Similarly in France teachers are seconded to help with the programme for the 'rénovation des collèges'. In France also there are experiments with networks which enable teachers to 'phone in to a central point for advice and be put in touch with another teacher who has advice or materials to offer. There is among the teaching force itself a vast resource of expertise, but it may remain untapped if an atmosphere does not exist in which free and frank exchange of ideas can take place and if teachers are not given time to undertake this work.

The question for the organiser of in-service training is how to make the best use of the contributions which these different types of people can make to in-service training. The competence of the course organiser, the research interests of the university lecturer, the academic and professional skills of the initial trainer, the broad field knowledge of the inspector, the current experience of the practising teacher. Some people in the system will, of course, combine several of these attributes but it will be rare to find them all in one person. The most difficult initial problem is often, regrettably, how to break down the barriers of prejudice which one group has about another: of the teacher who feels that the researcher who does not spend five days a week in the classroom has nothing to offer; of the researcher who is appalled at the closed world in which he feels that the teacher lives. Once this has been achieved cooperation can be very fruitful, as indeed it often is in subject associations such as the modern languages association in Italy or the mathematics association in France. Some examples of cooperation between university lecturers and teachers

illustrate the point.

> *The mathematics department in the University of Pisa has a deep interest in mathematical education and now has working within the department a group of school teachers. Together they provide in-service training in mathematics for the teachers in the region. Teachers seconded to work with the lecturers in Spanish in a college of higher education near Leeds are providing teaching and testing material for all the schools where Spanish is taught in the area. Or there is the work of the University of Liège where teachers on in- service courses are asked to take part in research. They thus become informed about developments in educational research and acquire methods of working which are of great help to them in developing and renewing their professional skills. The University of Stirling has highly developed 'action-research' programmes in modern languages involving cooperation between teachers and university lecturers.*

Many other examples could of course be cited but those mentioned show a level of professional debate between the partners of sufficient depth to produce results which are both innovative and practical and which can be used with teachers in the immediate locality. The difficulty for in-service organisers is always to find sufficient people able to work together in this way.

It often seems that the best use of the time of those who have a contribution to make to in-service work but heavy commitments elsewhere is to ask them to plan courses and give intensive training to a few people. These latter then train a larger team which in turn trains the target group of teachers. This is popularly known as the cascade model. It has strengths and weaknesses. Clearly its great strength is that the course planning is done by the most highly qualified people available. It may lead to rigidity, however, if the distance between the original planning team and the course giver is too great, which appears to be the case in the vast French project 'Informatique pour tous'.

> *The Netherlands is currently planning a similar type of information technology project 'the NIVO project' but here the scale is more modest. The planning is for three teachers only in each secondary school (in a much smaller country) and the course will take place in only 10 centres with which the original planning team will stay in touch. The intention is that the three teachers will act as trainers of their colleagues within their own school. The concern of the planning team is nevertheless that here, at the final stage of the cascade, the teachers will not have the social skills to act effectively.*
>
> *A further variation of the cascade model is that of the United*

Kingdom's National Management Centre at Bristol. Here the team advises on guidelines and materials, discusses and improves courses suggested by institutions and monitors their progress. The channels of communication between the central team and the people at the sharp end who actually meet the teachers are thus kept short and are two way.

We come, then, to the courses (or workshops or activities) themselves and to the trainers who actually meet the teachers round the table, in the workshop, the teachers' centre or the school. This is where success or failure takes place. Whatever the role and the original background of the leaders of courses they must have the skills necessary for working with adults, competence in the field with which they are dealing and clear objectives for the course itself. Teachers indeed expect in-service trainers to practise what they preach, to ensure that members interact with each other and that participants' needs are met. In-service trainers are, after all, by implication, providing a model for teachers' own work with children.

6. Resources

It is difficult to make any accurate comparisons between the resources allocated to in-service training by different countries. There may be no specific budget for it or there may be several different pockets from which finance is drawn. Responsibility may be divided between various branches of the national ministry or between central and regional or local administrations. The salaries of advisers may or may not be counted under this heading. Salaries of teachers who are seconded full-time or part-time to contribute to in-service work may well remain under a budget heading of teachers' salaries rather than in-service. The costs of replacing teachers in the classroom, always an expensive item, may or may not be included in the in-service budget. Despite all these variables, however, it is clear that there is an enormous disparity in the amount spent by member countries on in-service training. The budget ranges from approximately 10 to 1000 Ecus per year per teacher.

There is also a great deal of difference in the type of provision that is made. In Greece almost the only form of training is the one year full-time course for a privileged minority. By contrast in Hesse and Rheinland-Pfalz provision is solely in the form of very short two-to-five day courses plus part-time workshops and discussion groups in which, however, some 50% of teachers take part. In other countries, the United Kingdom, Spain and Denmark, for example, there is a mixture of full-time courses of varying lengths and of part-time courses out of school time.

The proportion of the in-service budget allocated to salaries for full-time lecturers or organisers varies greatly also, according to the organisational structure. Where there are national institutes as in Denmark, Greece, Belgium and the German Länder a high proportion of the budget is spent on the salaries of the institutional staff. Italian IRRSAE and Spanish teachers' centres are based on a similar model. In France, however, in the Netherlands and to some extent in the United Kingdom (although here the LEA advisory services make a major contribution) those responsible for in-service training rely on the contributions of lecturers and teachers whose principal sphere of activity lies elsewhere and who may be paid quite small sums for work of a substantial nature. Some staff development takes place, of course, without cost to the authorities, as in Italy, where groups of teachers meet on their own, out of school time to discuss curriculum development.

Most countries assume responsibility for the travelling and subsistence expenses incurred by teachers in attending courses although this is not always the case. Ireland, for instance, pays expenses only for the one-week summer vacation courses organised by the Inspectorate. The United Kingdom pays a proportion of the costs. In Germany and Denmark expenses are refunded in full.

The cost of material resources also figures to a greater or lesser extent in the budget, but perhaps less so than in the heyday of teachers' centres in the sixties. Teachers' centres, centres pédagogiques, do exist with libraries and collections of audio-visual materials, but the tendency now is to do in-service work in schools and to use the resources of the schools themselves. Where national or regional in-service institutions exist, however, these require a considerable budget for maintenance of buildings and for the assembling and production of materials if they are to perform their task effectively.

Two essential questions arise out of any discussion of resources. How large a proportion of the educational budget needs to be spent on in-service training? What kind of provision is most effective? Member countries have different conditions and traditions, but it seems clear that long, full-time courses for a small minority of teachers, unless these are to become trainers in their turn, do not represent cost-effective provision for the system as a whole. It seems clear also that there needs to be a sufficient number of people involved full-time at a senior level in in-service training to ensure that the contribution of part-timers is effective. Thirdly unless teachers are at least partly reimbursed for their expenses in attending courses the majority are not likely to take part.

There remains the vexed question of whether in-service work should be obligatory and whether it should be in school time. (See Diagram 5). Most countries have a written or unwritten contract

with teachers that participation in in-service activity is a condition of service. They stop short, however, of compelling teachers to put in attendance at courses in order to keep their jobs or proceed up the incremental salary scale, believing, quite rightly, that compelling unwilling recruits to attend courses would not lead to an opening of minds or changing of attitudes. On the question as to whether in-service training should be in school time teachers feel very strongly that some allowance needs to be made in their teaching commitment for participation in in-service activity. It seems that budgets must take this factor into account with its implications for the cost of replacement.

While not being able to prove a one-to-one correspondence it appears to us that where the level of resourcing is high the level of in-service activity is also high. It appears also that when the level of activity is high there is good coordination of the work and therefore good use of the resources allocated. Although judgments about the quality of in-service work could not be made in the course of such a short survey it became evident to us during our visits to institutions and discussions with senior officials that to be effective in-service training needs a budget which will cover the salaries of an adequate number of people involved full-time in organising and providing in-service training, the expenses of teachers attending courses, and the cost of some reduction in the teaching commitments of teachers participating.

7. The role of the head teacher

A key figure in the development of in-service training is the head teacher; his (or her) status and role vary, of course, from one country to another. In the United Kingdom the head's role in in-service training is explicit: one of his responsibilities is to help teachers to develop their professional skills through the exchange of ideas, through team work within the school and through contact with outside bodies. Even where there is no such explicit obligation, however, it is to the head teacher in the first instance that any request for release for an in-service course will come. He must decide whether classes can be covered and establish priorities among the requests for release. He must balance the longer term needs of the teachers and the school against the shorter term obligation to ensure the smooth running of the establishment.

The job of the head has become over the last two decades a complex one. The pressures on teachers of which we spoke in the introduction are felt first and most directly by head teachers. In particular the pressures of reorganisation of secondary education along comprehensive lines and of the further reorganisation necessitated by falling

rolls have been very great. More generally heads are the schools' official link with the outside world, with parents, with the educational administration, with the pupils' future employers. The expectations which all these groups have of schools are channelled through head teachers. Pressures can also come from within schools: demands by teachers for more democratic forms of school leadership (heads in Spanish and Portuguese schools are now often elected by the school council); dissatisfaction of teachers with their conditions of service (particularly prevalent in the United Kingdom at the present time). Head teachers need considerable personal and social skills if they are to cope with such a range of conflicting demands.

There has been a growing realisation in educational circles that head teachers, often appointed because they were good performers in the classroom rather than for any managerial skills they may have, need special training for their task. The educational world, particularly in the United Kingdom, looked first to industry for management training, but began subsequently to focus on the particular needs of school management. The National Development Centre, Bristol, UK, has been particularly influential in developing courses for head teachers which bring relevant theory to bear on the consideration of practical, school based issues including curriculum and staff development. The Netherlands and some German states also run courses for heads and in France all prospective heads must undergo a course of training. There is now a great deal of documentation on these initiatives which it is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss (3). It is important to stress, however, the crucial role of the head in school focused training and consequently the high priority which needs to be given to the in-service training of heads themselves.

8. The evaluation of in-service training

Evaluation of in-service work is a difficult subject: the synthesis report on the surveys of in-service training undertaken by OECD countries in the '70s notes the comparative lack of achievement in this area (4). One major difficulty is that the purposes of evaluation are often not clear and the resultant confusion over objectives and methodology limit the usefulness of the exercise.

The first type of evaluation is the major study undertaken by a research team which tests a hypothesis and draws conclusions and which is aimed at a wide audience. A good example is an evaluation by a research team over a three year period of school

(3) See, for instance, John Buckley *The Training of Secondary School Heads in Western Europe*. See bibliography No 5

(4) *Innovation in in-service education and training of teachers*. See bibliography No 7

focused in-service training in four LEAs in England (5). The LEAs had different characteristics and traditions and the schools varying degrees of commitment and expertise. The report draws out and elaborates in some detail the conditions for success in school focused work: commitment on the part of the head teacher, for instance, a school in-service policy, firm links with providing bodies. It has had considerable influence on practice in England. The second kind of evaluation is that undertaken by in-service trainers during and at the conclusion of a course. The aim here is to determine whether, in terms of skills and knowledge acquired, the objectives of the course have been achieved. Although procedures for this type of evaluation need not be very sophisticated, nevertheless lack of expertise can diminish the effectiveness of the operation. An interesting example was provided by the evaluation of information technology courses run by the missions in France (6). A central co-ordinating committee asked the team of trainers in each mission to do an ongoing evaluation of their courses. Some produced useful documents, showing a high level of critical self awareness, but others did not succeed in doing so, despite help from the centre. The chief difficulties they experienced were failure to define at the outset the objectives of the evaluation, lack of expertise among the team in eliciting and evaluating participants' reactions, and finally lack of time and money. This pattern is found in all types of in-service work in all sorts of contexts. Many in-service trainers would benefit greatly from help in the techniques of simple evaluation and would be likely to run more effective courses as a result.

The third and much more complex kind of evaluation is that concerned with the effect of in-service training on work in the classroom. The variables are great and it is difficult to attribute improvement in the work of a class to the attendance by a teacher at a particular course. Nevertheless this is the question to which employers constantly require an answer: does work in the classroom show that investment in in-service training is worthwhile? Any attempt to answer it is bound up with the role of the inspector or adviser whose job it is to evaluate the work done in school. If he knows his teachers well he is able to evaluate progress and to feed back to the providers of courses on mathematics, language development or music, for instance, the improvement or otherwise in the standards of the work of the children. This presupposes two things, however: firstly that the inspector sees his role as part of the in-service training network; secondly that his sphere of operations is sufficiently

(5) *The schools and in-service teacher education.* See bibliography No 58

(6) *Evaluation du dispositif de formation continue des enseignants aux utilisations pédagogiques de l'informatique.* See bibliography No 36

small to allow him to visit teachers regularly and to spend time with them. The problem of evaluation thus underlines: firstly, the need for organisations to be sufficiently small for their in-service policy to be known and agreed by all concerned; secondly, the need for resources which will permit an adequate and active full-time advisory service.

No evaluation is of great value, however, if it does not lead to positive action. All too often evaluative reports are left to collect dust on library shelves and lead neither to the withdrawal of ineffective courses nor to the development of worthwhile initiatives.

9. Links between initial and in-service training

In-service training must, of course, begin where initial training ends. The underlying assumption of this paper has been that all teacher training is a continuum, that professional development begins in the first year of initial training and continues throughout the teachers' career. This assumption raises two fundamental questions. Firstly, how far does initial training create in prospective teachers the attitude that they are entering a profession which involves a life-long obligation to review and develop their knowledge and skills? Secondly, how far does the education system offer teachers the opportunities they need to build on their initial training and to maintain and improve their professional competence?

Diagram 4 shows the structure of initial training in member countries. As it indicates, training for primary teachers has in most cases been lengthened to three or four years and many countries have been concerned to give to primary teachers an education of the level of university study. Some of that education is indeed the same as that for other university students, in France, for instance, Germany, the United Kingdom and Greece. The lengthening of the course has not, however, resolved the tension which exists between the claims of its various elements. Most courses attempt to give students some subject study at their own level; to cover all the subjects of the primary curriculum; to give some introduction to the philosophy and sociology of education and to theories of learning and child development; and to help students to develop practical teaching skills. The presence of so many different strands and the shortness of the time allocated to each can lead to lecturers adopting a didactic method and students a passive role. The need for the teacher training course to fit into the modular structure of other university degrees as in Greece or in phase 1 in Germany can lead to further fragmentation. Vast numbers can make individual learning almost impossible as in a Greek university where, for a course in experimental psychology 250 students are allocated one lecturer for three hours a week. Without some prioritisation or integration of the elements of the course the inculcation of an attitude of independent enquiry, interest in the

pursuit of knowledge and interest in keeping up with educational research will be difficult. The response of in-service structures to the newly trained primary teacher who needs perhaps special help with some areas of the curriculum where he is not very confident or encouragement to apply ill-digested theory to the practical situation in which he finds himself is not always very flexible. He is often offered general all-purpose courses with no account being taken of his experience in initial training. In France primary teachers are cut off from in-service training for the first five years of their career, just at the point when they might be most open to outside influence. In German states, it is true, institutes do offer to all teachers a variety of opportunities to work together on specific aspects of education, to produce materials and interpret state guidelines. In the United Kingdom young teachers, if they remain within the orbit of the college where they trained, may pursue at the college an interest which they developed during their initial training.

For secondary teachers, as may be seen in diagram 4, there is in some countries no initial professional training and the development of classroom teaching skills is therefore laid at the door of in-service organisations, a challenge which is not always taken up. In other countries professional training, very thorough in Germany, for instance, is school-based. The emphasis is on acquiring, on the job, competence in teaching the subject or subjects studied at university. Broader issues may be dealt with in background seminars, but the students' main preoccupation is the development of their classroom skills. This appears to be quite logical: the broader issues – of the interrelation of different areas of the curriculum, for instance, of adolescent development, of career orientation – in which all teachers need to be interested if there is to be a healthy education service can be left until later. In fact, however, in-service provision does not offer a planned, systematic programme in these areas. There are other forms of initial training also: for lower secondary teachers the Netherlands now has a four-year concurrent training in specialist institutes where subject competence and professional skills are developed together. These institutes, responsible also for in-service training, are said to be having an excellent influence on the schools. In the United Kingdom and Ireland, the professional course, based in universities, has a mixture of school-based work and theoretical study. It lasts only a year, however, and it is difficult therefore to give both elements the depth of treatment they need.

However thorough the initial training and whether or not it includes taking responsibility for classes, as in France and Germany, the newly trained teacher, left for the first time without the guidance of tutors appointed for the purpose necessarily feels vulnerable. A study of 'The new teacher in school', carried out by HM Inspectorate

in England and Wales(7), although it raises problems specific to the United Kingdom system, nevertheless gives many insights into the pressures which can affect all young teachers: the unfamiliarity with the type of school, its catchment area and social mix, to which they are appointed; the sudden discovery of gaps in a knowledge which they had thought adequate for the job; the revelation of the range of ability present in classes which, with the less experienced eye of a student, they might have thought homogeneous. Legitimate questions which require discussion with an experienced practitioner but which the new teacher may feel afraid to raise lest they reflect on his competence. The document draws attention to the weakening, largely for economic reasons, of the implementation of the induction year in England and Wales which had promised just such support. The implication runs through the report also of the lack of understanding of each others' work which exists between initial trainers and those responsible for supporting young teachers in the field. Personal links between initial and in-service trainers are often strong in member countries but there are not the structures, the time or the finance available to promote effective cooperation through the transition from initial to in-service training.

Discussion so far has centred on initial training as it has recently evolved. There are, however, in all countries many serving teachers who have had a much less complete training than that offered currently to new entrants to the profession. In-service training is therefore often concerned with making good the gaps. This has been done consistently in England and Wales over a number of years by offering teachers with only a three-year teaching certificate the opportunity to take a bachelor of education degree part-time. The same opportunity now exists in Ireland.

In the United Kingdom the Open University also offers teachers the opportunity of taking a first degree. In France, also, there are opportunities for serving teachers to work towards a 'licence' with the help of television courses. This kind of provision for the improvement of academic qualifications, although expensive, is relatively easy to make. Provision which aims to change the attitudes of teachers appointed many years previously with what may now be considered an inadequate training is much more difficult to make and takes us back to the major question of teacher involvement discussed above. The thrust of reform in teacher training has recently been towards initial training, particularly for primary teachers. In many cases the effects of the reform on the system have yet to become evident: the two-year university study of French primary teachers, the four-year university training of teachers in Greece. Italy has still to adopt the law

(7) *The new teacher in school.* See bibliography No 59

giving primary teachers training beyond secondary school leaving age. Most entrants to primary teaching in the Community will at all events, however, from the 1980s onwards, have received a much higher level of general education and training than previously. The problems which remain to be tackled concern the vast numbers of teachers, primary and secondary, who may still have 20 or 30 years to serve and whose initial training provided them with only insecure foundations on which to build.

A final comment on the links between initial and in-service training concerns the extent to which the experience of those concerned with developing the expertise of teachers in the field is brought to bear on the preparation of those about to enter it. Where the two categories of trainers are completely separate there is clearly very little influence. Where initial trainers also take part in in-service work, they may, it is true, keep both activities in water-tight compartments, but often their work with teachers renders their work with students more practical and realistic and does much to provide a natural link between initial and in-service training.

IV – CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study, in both its descriptive and analytical sections, demonstrates the impossibility of providing a single, theoretical model in answer to the two central questions, posed in the introduction, concerning in-service training.

- the critical mass: how can in-service provision be developed and diversified so as to reach a number of teachers sufficient to make the activity worthwhile?
- changes in attitude: how can the resources, content and types of in-service training be organised so as to bring about a real change in the professional practice of the individual teacher?

Whether it be a matter of modes of organisation, ways in which finance is allocated, priorities which influence the content of training and the choice of those responsible for it, no aspect of in-service training can be dissociated from the educational context particular to each country. The various constraints which affect decision making and the implementation of new ideas must also be taken into account if our conclusions and proposals are to be realistic.

Rather than attempting to provide simple solutions we have therefore tried to:

- summarize the principal problems, the gaps in provision most frequently found and the constraints which operate.
- define some of the conditions which are essential if in-service training is to be effective, bearing in mind the diversity of means through which objectives can be achieved.
- formulate more concrete recommendations linked to these objectives

These conclusions, taken as a whole, could facilitate the definition and implementation of a programme of cooperation between European member states. Although the particular characteristics of each Member State mean that in-service training is different in each one, there are nevertheless numerous points of contact: the search for solutions to similar difficulties; the pursuit of common aims; the desire to learn about the experience of others in order to enrich one's own thinking.

PROBLEMS AND CONSTRAINTS

The first constraint on the development of in-service training is, of course, financial. No Member State is at present in a position substantially to raise its education budget. There is a wide gap between in-service training budgets in Member States(1) and even

(1) See Part III, point No 6

states with large budgets feel that they are not meeting demand. The problem is thus particularly serious for countries which have not as yet made the necessary investment. This raises the whole issue of priorities in education, always a difficult one, as the results of decisions can be judged only in the long term.

A second set of problems and constraints concerns the organisation of in-service training. In some cases, the complexity of the processes by which decisions are made, information circulated and initiatives taken, makes coherent and effective provision of in-service training impossible. Most difficulties are caused, however, by lack of balance in the roles played by the three partners in in-service training: employers, trainers and teachers. When the initiative and the power of the employer (State or other) are dominant the emphasis is often on large scale plans linked to the needs of the system. The quantitative threshold (the critical mass) may be reached, but on the other hand effectiveness in terms of the quality of teaching, of real change in the professional practices of teachers, may not be so great. Indeed it may be that the training is merely something which teachers feel that they are forced to undergo and which has little to do with their real needs. These large scale plans do not always take into account the resources which already exist. Also, being subject to changes in the political climate, they are rarely fully implemented.

If the initiative and the decisions come exclusively from the trainers, provision is made in terms of resources available rather than needs, either of the teachers or the system. In this case difficulties include: fragmentation of activities leading at times to overlap; high costs; lack of flexibility in objectives, content and approaches; work which, although interesting in terms of quality (action-research for instance), involves a very restricted group of teachers.

Training where the initiative is taken solely by teachers would certainly give rise to difficulties: the risk of a closed circle because of absence of external support; a lack of objectivity in the analysis of needs and evaluation; complex administrative tasks which make too great demands on the teachers themselves. In fact, however, provision based on teachers' needs is extremely rare and the absence of an input by teachers is the most frequent cause of a lack of balance in provision.

A third set of constraints and difficulties arises from the nature of the existing pool of teacher trainers. Firstly, inadequate numbers of trainers may limit the development of in-service work; several countries see this as a problem. Secondly, the effectiveness of training is closely linked to the professional competence of the trainers. In fact only a small minority, be they university lecturers, inspectors or teachers, are prepared for the kind of approach needed in working with adults already established in their profession. Finally,

teachers are very diverse in their knowledge, problems, limitations and interests. Faced with such diversity of in-service training needs, a uniform response does not provide an effective solution. The different categories of trainers presented in Part III have skills which are complementary, but collaboration between them is sometimes difficult to achieve.

The role of universities in in-service training is important. Although universities alone clearly cannot fulfil all in-service training needs, it is nevertheless impossible to make complete and effective provision without their participation. Indeed it is only through them that the necessary links between training and research can be established. These links are often not sufficiently strong; in several countries the majority of universities have as yet no involvement in the in-service training of teachers.

Finally, as regards the implementation of plans for in-service training, many problems could be cited. We shall mention the three which seem to us to occur most frequently and to need solutions most urgently:

- the existence in all countries of a not insignificant number of teachers who never participate in in-service training.

  It is not that those who do not participate are not in need of in-service training; among non-participants are often teachers who are experiencing serious difficulties in the exercise of their profession. Reluctance to participate often indicates rather that teachers do not feel that the training offered is relevant to their difficulties. It is tempting to resolve this question by making in-service training compulsory (very rarely done as is shown by diagram number 6 in Part II). This solution does not seem a satisfactory one, however: compulsion is not synonymous with motivation.

- the predominance of in-service activities which take place on an irregular, occasional basis and are not integrated into a coherent development plan with follow up and evaluation built into it.
- too great a proportion of in-service training taking place outside school time, without time being allowed in lieu and without any link being present with teachers' careers. These are factors which are important in any consideration of the involvement of teachers in in-service work.

THE CONDITIONS FOR EFFECTIVENESS

As may be seen in Part III all Member States are attempting to overcome these problems and constraints, and many reforms have already been introduced. From our knowledge of the initiatives which have been successful, the objectives which organisers at local and

national level have adopted and the views which the three partners in in-service training have expressed, we think it possible to formulate some of the conditions which are essential to the development of in-service training. We have attempted to express these in terms of four broad aims and a set of more concrete recommendations. The stages of development and the ways in which objectives can be implemented obviously differ considerably from one country to another. We shall discuss here only those which correspond to the pre-occupations of the great majority of Member States or indeed to all of them.

Firstly, *in-service training of teachers can be effective only if it is linked to a staff development policy*. This policy can apply to an individual teacher, a group of teachers, or, better still, a school. Whichever it is, however, the right balance between the partners in training needs to be established and due weight given to the initiatives of teachers and schools and to their involvement in the training process. School focused in-service training, based on a staff development policy, is an important factor in transforming education systems. This is not to say that teachers should be solely responsible for analysing their needs, formulating their in-service training programme, choosing the trainers and evaluating results; external support is clearly necessary at every stage. Our thesis is simply that if the in-service training provision does not reflect the pre-occupations of teachers and if those participating do not feel involved, then it is difficult to see how real change can take place.

A second condition necessary for the effectiveness of INSET (directly linked to the preceding one) is that *the objectives of training must be clearly defined*(2). The full discussion of this question in Part III shows how difficult and complex is the process of defining professional competence and of evaluating the effects of in-service training on the development of that competence. Nevertheless the clarification of the objectives of in-service training is a necessary preliminary to decision making about the allocation of resources to various types of activity.

Thirdly *effective in-service provision must be coherent, flexible and diverse*; coherent so that the best use is made of existing resources and so that teachers are given maximum information as to the provision available; flexible so that it can respond to the changing needs of teachers and the system; diverse in its content and methods so that it can take account of the variety of needs of teachers.

> *The provision of a variety of types of in-service activity is important for two reasons. Firstly, different provision must be made for well motivated teachers who already play an active part in in-service work*

(2) See Part III, points No 2 and 8

and for teachers who never participate. Secondly, if preference is given to courses, then other forms of activity, equally useful provided that they are part of an integrated programme – observation of each other's lessons, visits to different establishments, action-research geared to the real needs of the classroom – tend to be neglected.

The final condition for effective provision is *an increase in the resources allocated to in-service training*. Undoubtedly the cost effectiveness of training can be improved by better management and planning of programmes, by the withdrawal of activities judged after evaluation to be ineffective, and by the better use of those teachers who have benefited from known courses (from a sabbatical year, for example). However a sufficient number of teachers cannot be reached by in-service training unless the budget for it includes provision for an adequate number of teacher trainers and resources which allow teachers to undertake at least part of their training in school time.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the context of these four general aims, we put forward, based on the analysis contained in our report, the following recommendations:

The organisation of in-service training.

- In-service training should be organised through a system of networks. The first level network would consist of small, local centres in close touch with the schools (catering for some two thousand to three thousand teachers). Their principal functions would be: to facilitate the exchange of ideas and the circulation of information; to provide help in the analysis of in-service training needs and in the organisation of school focused work. This first level network would not always have at its disposal a sufficiently large team of teacher trainers with the varied skills and experience necessary to ensure good overall provision, and would need to be complemented by a second level network, regional or national (catering for some fifty thousand teachers) which would be able to deploy all existing resources and make coherent provision for the whole region, based on the analysis of needs formulated by the local centres. Finally, in countries where the teaching force exceeds fifty thousand or where, because of the geography of the country, schools are scattered over a wide area, a third national level of coordination would, of course, be necessary. The creation of networks along these lines could be achieved, in most member countries, through use of existing structures and without additional financial investment.

– The responsibilities and roles of institutions should be clarified. At each level of organisation (particularly local and regional) there should be a single person with sufficient financial autonomy to make provision appropriate to needs. His status should be such as to allow him to negotiate with teachers, training institutions (universities, for instance) and employers.

Programmes for in-service training

– In-service programmes should be based on analysis of teachers' needs, arrived at in a variety of ways – through interviews, questionnaires, discussion with school staff, negotiations with unions and so on.
– There should be regular evaluation of in-service work. Arrangements should be made at regional (or national) level to evaluate in-service programmes so that decisions on the allocation of funds are made on the basis of clear evidence, and so that in-service work is as cost-effective as possible. All in-service activities should have built into them their own evaluation procedures in which the participants are involved.
– Profiles should be constructed of the groups of teachers who never take part in in-service activity, and the reasons for their failure to participate analysed. Specific measures should be taken to involve them (information, sensitisation) without, however, detracting from the provision made for teachers who welcome participation in in-service work.
– School focused training should be developed. This presupposes that schools will be encouraged and assisted in the formulation of staff development plans which will lead to a definition of in-service needs. Participation in the formulation of such plans could be considered as the first phase of training.
– Priority should be given to the in-service training of head teachers(3).

The teacher trainers.

– Arrangements should be made to ensure collaboration between the different categories of teacher trainers(4) so as to make the best possible use of their complementary skills and to avoid overlap in provision.
– Training programmes should be developed for the teacher trainers themselves. The principal aim of these programmes must be the improvement of the trainers' capacity to work with adults who are already established in their profession. For instance they

(3) See Part III, point No 7

(4) See Part III, point No 5

often need help with the techniques of leading a group, with relating activities to real life situations and with defining the objectives of their activities.

- Links should be strengthened between research in education and the training of teachers by giving teachers the opportunity to inform themselves about the results of research, or better still, to participate in action-research, thus integrating the problems raised in the course of training with the planning of future research projects.

Types of in-service activity

- Varied methods should be used, bearing in mind the objectives of the training and the nature of the target group. Effective in-service training must not be limited to the provision of courses (whether short or long). Other types of activity can be provided without adding greatly to the costs. Participants need to be consulted about the approach adopted if it is to be appropriate to their needs.
- Maximum advantage should be taken of long, expensive courses (sabbatical years, for instance). This type of activity can only be cost-effective if those who attend long courses are used subsequently either as teacher trainers or as disseminators of good practice in the schools to which they return after participation in a course. Benefit to the individual can thus be combined with improvement to the system.
- The resources which form the necessary context for in-service training need to be guaranteed: resource centres; accessible documentation; circulation of information; arrangements for follow-up and for capitalising on in-service provision; measures to sensitize pupils and parents to the need for teachers to participate in in-service training.
- Teachers' participation in in-service activity needs to be given due recognition. This recognition can take various forms (effect on careers, time being given in lieu etc). It is relevant here to recall the point made in Part III(5): that if all in-service training has to take place out of school time (or without time in lieu being given for it) the number of teachers participating will never be sufficiently large to guarantee effectiveness. All possible ways of bringing about the release of teachers need to be explored (replacement, different ways of organising schools, and so on).

(5) See Part III, page No 6

Links between initial and in-service training

- Priority should be given to the induction of new teachers(6). The moment when young teachers assume full responsibility for their classes for the first time is crucial. They need support in their first year: initial training, however thorough, can never completely solve all the problems with which teachers are confronted in their first year of service.
- Initial training courses should be modified in order to develop in future teachers the desire and the capacity constantly to renew their professional skills. This will ensure that in the long term the majority of teachers will seek participation in in-service activity.

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* *

Although it is undoubtedly true that in-service training cannot of itself solve the vast problem of the quality of teaching, it is nevertheless certain that this improvement in quality which pre-occupies all Member States will not be realised without the development of in-service training for teachers.

The issue is now one of making investment in in-service training a priority, both for member countries and for the Commission of the European Communities. The Commission is in a position to coordinate collaboration over in-service training, collaboration which cannot but be to the advantage of all member countries.

In conclusion it seems to us that a single argument suffices to justify investment in in-service training: it is the teacher who educates and trains his pupils; the model of the training which he himself has received and is receiving has a powerful effect on the education and training of the young people he has in his charge.

(6) See Part III, point No 9

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